



#### DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 278 275 FL 016 434

AUTHOR Murphy, John Merton

TITLE An Investigation into the Listening Strategies of ESL

College Students.

PUB DATE Apr 85

NOTE 52p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

(19th, New York, NY, April 8-14, 1985).

Reports - Research/Technical (143) --

Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS Behavior Patterns; \*College Students; \*English (Second Language); Higher Education; Learning

Processes; \*Learning Strategies; \*Listening

Comprehension; \*Listening Habits; \*Listening Skills; Methods Research; Second Language Learning; Skill

Development; Teaching Methods

#### ABSTRACT

PUB TYPE

A study of the listening strategies of college students for whom English is a second language analyzed their oral and written responses to listening selections. The analysis resulted in 17 individual strategies classified in six broad categories. More and less proficient listeners were distinguishable by the frequency of the strategies they used and the sequential patterns of strategies they followed. These results suggest that listening is an interpretive language process in which a variety of strategies are interwoven and that textual and non-textual information combined with the strategies used determines the listener's interpretation of what he hears. One implication of the study for the classroom is that methods of listening instruction should be integrated with activities involving reading, speaking, and writing. (Author/MSE)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made

from the original document. \*

### AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE LISTENING STRATEGIES OF ESL COLLEGE STUDENTS

John Merton Murphy

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (19th, New York, NY April 8-14, 1985).

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

In Murphy

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

- This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
- Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

#### ABSTRACT

# AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE LISTENING STRATEGIES OF ESL COLLEGE STUDENTS

#### John Merton Murphy

The problems ESL learners face as listeners in college classrooms seem different from the ones they encounter whey they speak, read, or write in English. The purpose of this investigation was to explore the listening strategies of ESL college students. I did this in order to better prepare myself for integrating listening instruction into methods of second language teaching. One of my aims has been to bring listening research into the era of process-oriented investigations. My focus upon the process of listening parallels recent methods for investigating reading and writing.

I produced transcriptions of ESL college students' oral and written responses to listening selections. The method I followed to analyze the data was protocol analysis. Twelve intermediate level ESL college students participated in the investigation. Half were relatively more proficient and half were relatively less proficient listeners. The students took intermittent breaks during the presentation of the listening selections by self-selecting the moments when their oral and written responses were to be expressed. By providing a structure for the students to take periodic breaks from listening long enough to express their thoughts, I was able to record these responses while their interpretations of the selections were still in the process of formation.



#### ABSTRACT

(CONTINUED)

I have been able to label and explore a series of seventeen individual strategies placed into six broad strategic categories. Evidence of the differences between the two groups of ESL listeners pertain to the frequencies of the strategies they used, and to the sequential patterns they followed. The image for listening arising from this investigation is that of an interpretive language process in which a variety of listening strategies interweave. The textual and non-textual information that emerges along with the strategies listeners use determines their interpretations of what they hear. One implication of the study is that methods of listening instruction need to be integrated with activities involving reading, speaking, and writing.



#### BIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

John Merton Murphy is an Assistant Professor of English as a Second Language at Brooklyn College, The City University Of New York. He received a Doctorate of Education (Ed.D.) from Teachers College, Columbia University in 1985. His current research interests include the writing and listening processes of ESL college students.



# AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE LISTENING STRATEGIES OF ESL COLLEGE STUDENTS

As well as needing firm control over reading, writing, and speaking in English to insure their success in college, ESL students must cope with the challenge of comprehending academic lectures. The problems ESL learners face while listening in these settings seem to be different from the ones they encounter when trying to read, write, or speak in English. The purpose for initiating this study was to explore the listening strategies of proficient as compared with less proficient ESL college students. I explored their listening strategies in order to learn more about second language (L2) listening and to better prepare for the effective integration of listening instruction into college-level ESL courses.

In the literature on teaching second languages many investigators have presented convincing evidence that students are in need of listening instruction, especially at the early stages of learning an L2 (See: Blair, 1982; and Winitz, 1981 for reviews; as well as Bamford, 1982; Rivers, 1976; and Palmer, 1917). Although interest in listening stretches back to the turn of this century, in relation to reading, writing, and speaking much less research has been devoted to listening in general and to the listening of L2 learners in particular (Lundsteen, 1979; Rivers, 1976). Our current understanding of the nature of listening is based upon first language (L1) research into psycholinguistics, schema theory, and other related fields of inquiry,



but there continues to be very "little direct research on second language listening comprehension" (Richards, 1983, p. 220). The point that listening is one of the most underestimated and least understood aspects of L2 investigation has been echoed in the literature repeatedly over the past twenty years (Blair, 1982; Burling, 1982; Donaldson-Evans, 1981; Winitz, 1981; Underwood, 1980; Rivers, 1978; Belasco, 1967). Up to the present time, few attempts have been made to characterize the strategies ESL students use as listeners to English.

We are living in a period of change concerning fundamental ideas on how languages are acquired and used. In the 1970s, for example, composition researchers began to develop new descriptions for the act of writing and to emphasize the writing 'process' (see: Hairston, 1982; Zamel, 1982; and Humes, 1980 for reviews). A similar and parallel development has occurred in reading through investigations into the nature of discourse structure and proposition salience (Kintsch & Van Dijk, 1978; Frederiksen, 1975; Meyer, 1975), process strategies and miscue analysis (Goodman & Goodman, 1977; Brown, A., 1981; Rigg, 1976) and schema theory (Carrell, 1984; Rumelhart, 1977; Anderson, 1977). Some L2 researchers reference the work of Kuhn (1970) and argue that changes are occuring at the very foundations for conceptualizing psychological and linguistic frameworks of L2 teaching methologies (Raimes, 1983; Brown, H. D., 1980, 1975; Schwerdtferger, 1980). If we have entered into a period of change in reference to the teaching of reading, writing, and second languages, then the implications of the new paradigm are bound to have an important impact upon the way we conceptualize a language area such as L2 listening as well. One well-represented school

of thought from the dicipline of modern foreign language instruction specifically argues that L2 listening has become the foundation upon which a new paradigm is already developing (Terrell, et al., 1983; Burling, 1982; Winitz, 1981; Newmark, 1981; Nord, 1981; Gary, J. & Gary, N., 1981; Swaffar & Woodruff, 1978). Some of these researchers have coined the term "the comprehension approach" as a broad label for the special emphasis they place upon listening instruction at early stages of L2 learning. Although their position is becoming better documented, the role that listening plays in the acquisition of an L2 continues to be loosely defined and infrequently explored. Because listening beyond the elementary levels of L2 competence is a relatively uncharted area for study I decided to explore an number of basic questions related to it. I searched for deeper insight into L2 listening by comparing and contrasting the respective listening strategies of comparatively more proficient and less proficient intermediate-level ESL college students. Here is a list of the general exploratory questions I addressed:

- (1) Is protocol analysis a practical way to investigate listening?
- (2) Can listening effectively be characterized as a language process?
- (3) In their oral and written responses to listening selections, do students seem to use listening strategies?
- (4) What are their listening strategies?
- (5) Do more proficient as compared with less proficient intermediate-level ESL listeners use different strategies?
- (6) What strategies are activated relatively more frequently in the responses of both groups of listeners?
- (7) Are there recurring sequential patterns to how the listeners activate their strategies?
- (8) Can we distinguish between particular instances of more and less effective listening?



In order to find answers to these questions I broke with the prevailing tradition that served as the conceptual basis for most previous investigations into listening. The prevailing tradition both in Ll and L2 studies has tended to be centered around a description of listening as a linear process of decoding in which information flows smoothly in one direction from a speaker to a listener. As a reflection of this perspective, investigations into listening traditionally have involved setting up a Pretest-(Treatment Group/Control Group)-Posttest research design in which different forms of listening instruction were compared in order to determine which ones produced relatively more significant results. The most pervasive questions asked were: (1) Is notetaking an effective technique for enhancing the comprehension and retention of information presented to listeners (see: Ladas, 1980 for a comprehensive (2) Does training in listening lead to improvement in students' listening skills (see: Lundsteen, 1979; and Devine, 1978 for Ll reviews)? (3) Is an extensive emphasis on listening instruction at the earliest stage of language learning an effective method for teaching a foreign or second language (see: Winitz, 1981 for a comprehensive L2 review)? The products that were examined in these investigations were the participants' scores on post-listening tests of comprehension. What was missing from studies such as these is that because the methodologies followed were primarily product-centered, little light was being shed upon how the process of listening takes place. This is not the type of research design that my response to the literature has prompted me to employ.

One of my aims for this study was to bring listening research into the era of process-oriented investigations. I suggest that hy examining it as a language process, listening can be investigated with procedures similar to those recently applied for investigations into reading and writing. To do this, I produced transcriptions of ESL college students' oral and written responses to commercially available tape-recorded listening selections that simulate academic lectures. I refer to the transcriptions of their responses as the students' listening protocols, and to the method followed to analyze the data as protocol analysis. Student protocol analysis has been used effectively in both writing and reading research designs (see: Calkins, 1983; Graves, 1981 on writing, and Marr & Gormly, 1983; Wolf & Tymitz, 1976-77 on reading).

#### Data Collection

All the participants in the investigation had access to the same set of directions concerning how the study was to be conducted. An Investigator's Script was designed that included all of the procedural information the students needed to know in order to participate in the investigation. Here is the script as it was presented to the participating students each time we met together:

#### Investigator's Script

"I am trying to get to know you as a person who listens to English. This is a difficult thing to do since listening is something that takes place within our minds and it is not something we can easily observe in other people. By this I mean that if you are riding a bicycle or driving a car I can get an accurate picture of you as a bicyclist or automobile driver by watching you as you are performing one of these activities. With listening, however, what you are doing takes place within you mind. There is nothing for anyone else to see. For this reason I will ask you to talk or write about what you are thinking as you are listening to some selections in English. Let me explain how I want us to proceed."



"You are going to listen to the tape recording of a short selection in English. Your object will be to interrupt the speaker as frequently as you wish and to talk or write about the thoughts that are running through your mind as you are listening. The decision to either speak directly to me or to write your ideas down on paper is entirely up to you. In order to interrupt the playing of the tape recording please signal to me with a hand gesture when you have heard enough material to which you can respond."

(At this point the investigator and the participant will have to agree upon an easily recognizable hand gesture. The student may simply point with his/her index finger, or raise a hand. Whatever the signal is, it must be agreed upon in advance)

"You may interrupt as frequently as you want. By signaling with your hand you have control over how much material you listen to before taking a break. In fact, you can avoid the feelings of getting lost while listening or forgetting your ideas by interrupting frequently and talking or writing about your thoughts immediately following each interruption you make. Remember that it is better not to wait too long before you make the effort to express your ideas because you do not want to forget what you might be thinking as you listen. I want you to try and summarize as much of what the speaker says as you can, but in addition, please include any other thoughts you have running through your mind as well"

### Example of the Procedure

- (1) A telve minute listening selection is started on a tape player.
- (2) After 45 seconds of listening the participant signals to stop the tape.
- (3) First structuring move by the Investigator:
  SILENCE: This will give the participant an initial chance to
  express his/her thoughts without any distractions.
  THEN, ONLY WHEN NECESSARY:
  - A.) In your own words, what was the speaker saying?
  - B.) What have you been thinking about (also: seeing, feeling) as you listened?
  - C.) Is there anything else you remember?
- (4) The participant has finished expressing his/ner thoughts.
- (5) The investigator turns the tape recording on again at the same point at which it was interrupted in (2).
- (6) After X number of seconds, the participant again signals to stop the tape.
- (7) The investigator repeats the first structuring move of silence,



and continues as before.

(8) Steps (1) through (7) are repeated until all of the listening selection has been presented to the participant.

#### Setting

The recorded materials collected under the conditions described above I refer to as the listeners' oral responses. All of the participants were presented with the same listening materials and directions for responding. They were free in choosing to respond to the selections through either an oral or a written medium. Their oral responses were recorded with the use of a small cassette tape recorder. The students were also provided with clean sheets of white paper and pens in case they wanted to respond through writing. A second tape recorder was used in order to play the recordings of the listening selections.

I collected the responses they produced while working with a group of twelve ESL college students. I met with each of the participants individually on eight different occasions. The first two meetings were devoted to introducing them to the aims and procedures of the investigation (these were not included in the actual period of data collection). My last six meetings with each of the twelve participants generated the data upon which this investigation was based. Over the course of one semester, our meetings together were held once a week for eight consecutive weeks.

#### Instruments

When deciding upon the six listening selections to be included as part of the investigation my first concern was that they be materials originally designed with listening in mind. In 1983 a fellow doctoral student at Teachers College conducted a formal survey of the ten most



widely preferred ESL listening materials in the opinions of 115 directors of college-level or college-preparatory ESL programs in the United States (Oprandy, work in progress). I found that only three of these sets of materials included selections that were well-suited for the purposes of the investigation. The others did not attempt to simulate the format of academic lectures. Since there was not a great supply of appropriate materials to be found in commercially available ESL listening texts, I supplemented these with two selections that were originally designed with L1 listeners in mind. Through consultation with three professional ESL teachers who were experienced in the field, we settled upon the following six selections for three reasons: (1) The selections would be of general interest to college- age ESL students. (2) They were as culturally neutral in relation to the participants' language backgrounds as could They simulated the format of college-level academic be found. (3) lectures in relation to topic, content, and length.

#### Title of Selection

- (1) The Discovery of King Tut's Tomb
- (2) Your Personality and Your Heart
- (3) John F. Kennedy: Promise and Tragedy
- (4) Are They Home Buyers Or Are They Thieves?
- 5) The Clever Judge and the Stolen Money

#### Source

- Listening Skills Schoolwide (Devine, 1982) (L1)
- Better Listening Skills
  (Sims & Peterson, 1981) (L2)
- Advanced Listening Comprehension,

  Developing Aural and Note
  Taking Skills

  (Dunkel & Pialorsi, 1982) (L2)
- Schema-Directed Processes in Language Comprehension (Anderson, 1977) (L1)
- Listening Focus
  (Kisslinger & Rost, 1980) (L2)



#### Title of Selection

(6) The Egyptian Pyramids: Houses of Eternity

#### Source

Advanced Listening Comprehension,
Developing Aural and NoteTaking Skills
(Dunkel & Pialorsi, 1982) (L2)

#### Sample

All of the participants were enrolled in one of four different sections of an ESL Oral Communication course that I taught at a large metropolitan university in New York City. Instruction in L2 listening was not an integral aspect of the Oral Communication course, and the participants were aware that their involvement in the study was completely separate from the course. The twelve subjects who participated were drawn from the original population of eighty-four students who enrolled in this course during the fall semester of 1983. This population was divided into two groups because I intended to compare the differences between the listening strategies of more proficient with comparably less proficient intermediate-level ESL learners. Their assignments into one of the two groups were determined by their performances on three separate measures (see Appendix A for a description of the three measures used). Half of the students were placed into the higher proficiency level group and half into the lower.

In order to identify the twelve participants a colleague of mine at the university conducted a separate random selection of six students from each of these two groups of forty-two students each. While collecting the data, transcribing the tapes, and initially coding the listeners' protocols, I did not know who was a higher level or a lower level participant. The ethnic-composition and academic-ability level of the



students who enroll in this course do not change appreciably from one year to the next. Therefore, I have better prepared to conduct more effective listening instruction by learning something from the investigation that is relevant to as many students as was possible.

Data Analysis

After all of the data had been collected, there were seventy-two separate listeners' protocols transcribed from a total of thirty-six hours of tape recordings. In other words, the separate meetings with each of the participants lasted for an average of thirty minutes. With the assistance of two outside collaborators we transcribed all of the participants' oral and written responses to the listening selections. While preparing the data in this manner all of these responses were divided into sequentially ordered individual thought groups.\* Each separate thought group was written as one line of transcription. Data analysis was directed toward examing and classifying the listeners' responses at the level of these individual thought groups.

Following a recursive and qualitative examination of the data, I eventually decided upon a three-dimension framework in order to analyze the listeners' individual responses. The labels for the three dimensions are: Source, Use, and Area of Content. I based the dimensions related to Use and Area of Content upon some characteristics of communication proposed by Fanselow in his descriptive classroom observation system,



<sup>\*</sup> The term 'thought group' is intended to be synomous with terms in the literature such as 'independent clauses', 'superordinate clauses'. 'thought units', or 'T-units.' A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English (Quirk & Greengaum, 1975) was the reference used for the identification of separate thought groups.

FOCUS: Focii for Observing Communication Used in Settings (Fanselow, 1977).

For a more complete description of the dimensions used the reader should refer to Murphy (1985) or Fanselow (1977).

For each of the three dimensions I asked one question. was: Where does the source of the information the listener expresses originate, in the text, in the listener's prior experience, or through an interaction of these two concerns? My use of the term "source" is very different from the way Fanse ow uses this same term. The remaining two dimensions are based upon, although not identical to, Fanselow's definitions of Uses and Areas of Content. For the second dimension I ask: How does the listener use the language to express his or her ideas (i.e., through characterizing, questioning, relating, repeating, revising, or stating)? With respect to the third dimension I ask: What is the area of content addressed in the listener's comment (i.e., context, discourse, lexis, grammar, inflections, spelling, word order, cohesive ties, rhetoric, pronunciation, the topic area of the selection, the speaker's intentions, general knowledge, personal information, procedural concerns, prescriptive advice, the listening process, or unspecified)? As well as examining the data in light of these three dimensions, I also maintained a consistent distinction between the participants' oral and written responses.

Each line of transcription was coded according to the three dimensions of Source, Use, and Areas of Content. With the assistance of three independent test-coders who were trained in the framework for data analysis, eleven percent of the total number of participants' responses was subjected to a reliability check. For each of the three



dimensions there was more than 80% agreement on the check for inter-coder reliability, and more than 81% agreement on the check for intra-coder reliability with the sample of the data all three test-coders examined. The recurring combinations of Sources, Uses, and Areas of Content at the level of the participants' individual responses led to an identification and labeling of the participants' various listening strategies.

#### Results

The participants in the investigation did seem to be able to articulate through speech and writing the information that they were taking into consideration while listening. I found that this was a practical and effective way to investigate listening. The group of more proficient listeners produced a total of 2,706 oral responses for an average of 75 oral comments each time a listening selections was presented to one of them. Members of the group of less proficient listeners produced a total of 2,039 oral responses for an average of 57 oral comments while listening to one of the same selections. In other words, the more proficient listeners had more to say while interacting with the selections than the members of the other group. They also produced more written responses.

The ESL students seemed to use a number of recognizably distinct strategies for interpreting the selections. The discovery of a variety of different strategies suggests that listening can be characterized as a language process because it seems to involve more than merely decoding what one hears. After grouping some of these listening strategies together. I have labeled six general headings that encompass a total of seventeen separate strategies. Presented in the order of their frequency of



occurence the general headings are: Recalling, Speculating, Probing, Introspecting, Delaying, and Recording

### TABLE 1

### Strategy Groupings and Individual Listening Strategies

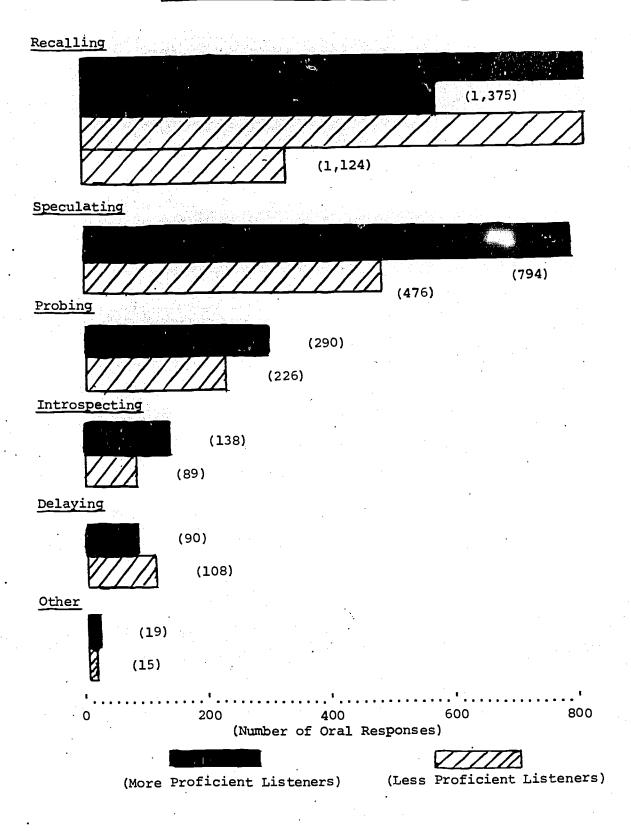
<u> </u>	James for Strategy	groupings	-	Names for Individual Listening Strategies	
·	(1) Recalling	<del>-</del>		Paraphrasing Word-Hooking Revising Checking	
	(2) Speculating		<b>-</b>	Inferring Connecting Personalizing Anticipating	
	(3) Probing	,	_	Analyzing the Topics Analyzing the Conventions of Language Evaluating the Topics	
	(4) Introspectin	g	· ••	Self-Evaluating Self-Describing	:
	(5) Delaying		-	Repeating Fishing	
	(6) Recording (written non-oral	responses;		Notetaking Drawing	

(Insert Graph Number One)



#### GRAPH NUMBER ONE

## The Participants' Total Number of Oral Responses Divided into Major Strategy Groupings





When the listeners used one of the four <u>Recalling</u> strategies they were paraphrasing textual information by putting it into their own words. It seems that the students rarely tried to repeat what they had heard by using exactly the same words that were presented to them. The names of the four Recalling strategies are: Paraphrasing, Word-Hooking, Revising, and Checking. They are all similar in the sense that for these strategies the listeners rephrased the information they heard while using their own means of expression. The label Word-Hooking is reserved for responses in which a particularly original means of expression is introduced by the listener. For example, when one of the participants listened to a selection in which nervous and anxious personality types were discussed, first she heard:

(Many doctors have noticed that their heart patients are very anxious and nervous individuals. They are excessively competitive and always try to achieve the highest positions in their work. They set themselves unrealistic goals and force themselves to meet impossible deadlines)

#### Then she said:

"They're more like workaholics in a sense because they have to do everything in a certain time

Workaholics means that they love to work a lot just like an alcoholic loves to drink a lot

I guess if you're a workaholic that means you're gonna have a heart attack sooner or later"

I say that the listeners are Word-Hooking when their means of expression is particularly creative, as in the responses cited above. For Word-Hooking, as well as for the other three Recalling strategies, the information presented in the listener's response parallels the information presented in the listening selection.



For the Revising strategy the listeners are changing their minds and correcting themselves concerning some information they may have confused or misunderstood the first time they tried to The listeners are Checking when they recall information from the text in order to support or verify something that they had already introduced in one of their previous comments. Paraphrasing, Word-Hooking, Revising, and Checking strategies all indicate that listeners attempt to recall what they have heard as accurately as possible, and that they express this information in their own words. The participants in the investigation used Recalling strategies for well over fifty percent of their oral responses and virtually all of their written responses. This was true for both groups of ESL college students. I refer to Paraphrasing as the major Recalling strategy because the listeners paraphrased in their oral responses more often than they used all of the other fourteen listening strategies combined. Both groups of participants were very similar in this respect.

When the students used one of the four <u>Speculating</u> strategies, Graph #2) which is the second major strategy heading, they were doing something quite different from recalling textual information. One might expect that listeners would attempt to recall as much as they can of what they hear, but for the Speculating strategies they complement the information presented to them by introducing what I refer to as listener-based information. The names of the

#### GRAPH NUMBER TWO

The Proportion of Paraphrasing Strategies in Relation to All Other Strategies Combined

Paraphrasing
(1st in order
of frequency)



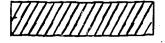
All Other Strategies
Combined
(Non-Paraphrasing)



0 500 1,000 1,500 2,000 (Number of Oral Responses)



(More Proficient Listeners)



(Less Proficient Listeners)



four Speculating strategies are: Inferring, Connecting, Personalizing, and Anticipating. When employing one of them the listeners seem to be using the speculative power of their imaginations as an aid for listening. I found that these responses often emerged at the center of their interpretations of the selections. The Inferring strategy pertains to responses in which students demonstrate they are 'listening between the lines', pulling separate pieces of textual information together, or synthesizing what they hear.

The Connecting strategy demonstrates that prior knowledge plays a role in the listening process because it signals that listeners make associations between what they hear and what they already know. When one of the participants heard a brief textual reference to the Egyptian pyramids as being one of the seven wonders of the world she said:

"The other six wonders of the world no longer exist
Like they had a statue of Zeus, you know, that Greek god
And that statue was made of pure gold
I think that finally it was burned down by some invaders
or something
And also there was the hanging (Gardens of Babylon)
It was a little valley that was decorated with a lot of
trees hanging from the buildings and places like that
I think that the decorations were put there because the king
married a girl who came from the forest
I read that she felt homesick because there wasn't any
trees around . . .
Those are the two (other) wonders of the world that I know
about"

The information that she introduced in the responses above had not been presented to her in the selection. Therefore, I recognize that she was drawing a connection between what she heard and information that was part of her prior knowledge. The more proficient listeners activated the Connecting strategy slightly more often than the



members of the other group.

The Personalizing is similar in many respects to

Connecting. When listeners personalize in their responses they
are also making connections between what they hear and what they
already knew before beginning to listen to a selection, but the
nature of the information they introduce is subtly different.

Personalizing responses indicate that students draw connections
to information from their private lives or personal opinions. It is not
information that is commonly available as general knowledge. As listeners
introduce information about themselves as people, or about their families,
friends, and relatives, or any information that would not be generally
accessible to the public, their comments fit the criterion for the
Personalizing strategy. When one listener was responding to the
selection in which anxious and nervous personality types were discussed,
he began to personalize some of what he heard by relating it to someone
he had met through his family. He said:

. . . my mother's boss is like that

He knows my mother

He comes over my house and we know his family and everything When he comes to work he's a different person

Oh, he changes, oh, forget it'

He worries, he screams, he gets headaches, he gets sick

He gets sick because of worrying

He was in the hospital for a couple of days, for that nervousness . . .

My mother goes crazy too when he acts like that

She quit her job, by the way

She couldn't take it either

I mean the guy was ridiculous"

This kind of information would not be generally accessible to anyone outside his immediate family unless the listener decided to express it.



The more proficient listeners introduced Personalizing responses more than four times as often as the less proficient listeners.

The fourth speculative strategy is the one I refer to as

Anticipating. In these responses listeners reach beyond the

cues they sample out of a selection and attempt to predict

information that might be introduced at some future point in

time. During the presentation of a selection that dealt with the discovery

of King Tut's tomb, one listener heard:

four packing cases of priceless material from the tomb along with four chariots and dozens of statues. . .)

And he responded by saying:

They're British so maybe the things they discovered into a museum
They're British so maybe the things they discover will

go into a museum in England
Maybe they're going to say that the men who discovered that
tomb became very famous as archeologists
That probably helped them in their (professional) field
a lot
They didn't say that yet but I bet that's what's going to
happen later on"

As presented in graph number three, I found that the more proficient listeners anticipated in their oral responses more often than the participants in the other group. Their anticipations of the topics seemed most effective when the listeners stayed open to the possibility of reconsidering their tentative predictions in light of information presented later on in the selections.

The third major heading indicates that listeners often analyze, characterize, or evaluate what they hear. Like the Speculating strategies, these responses reveal that listening is more than a receptive



language skill. They signal that listeners tend to probe beneath the surface of the information presented to them. I place the three strategies in this group under the heading of <u>Probing</u>. The three Probing strategies are: Analyzing the Topics, Analyzing the Conventions of language, and Evaluating the Topics.

When listeners Analyze the Topics they are trying to find out more information than has been presented to them. Most often they do this by asking questions or characterizing what they hear. For example, when one of the students was listening to the selection dealing with the general topic area of heart disease, she was not satisfied with the text's emphasis on the preventive measures one can take to avoid heart related problems. She said:

- (1) "I'm interested in something else

  I want to know what are some of the symptoms

  (immediately) before a heart attack happens?
- (3) Do you have any headaches?

  I think I read somewhere that you're suppose to have pains in your arms
- (5) What can you do about those pains?
  And also, what are the physical damages (after a heart attack)?
- (7) They didn't really talk about the damages yet"

The issues she raised in these responses were not the ones addressed in the selection, yet they became the center of the listener's interpretation. In comments (2) through (6) she was analyzing by asking questions. In (7) she was analyzing by characterizing the topics presented in the selection. Of all the responses collected in this investigation that fit the criterion for Analyzing the Topics, 61% of them belonged to the group of more proficient listeners.



When listeners Analyze the Conventions of Language they focus their attention upon specific features of the linguistic system such as: the definitions of words, spelling, pronunciation, grammar, cohesive ties, and rhetorical organization. There was a clear difference between the two groups of participants with respect to the conventions of language they addressed in their analyzing responses. The members of the group of more proficient listeners were most often concerned with the rhetorical organization of the selections because they tended to point out which pieces of information represented main ideas and supporting details, or they spoke of the organizational structure of the selections.

Approximately 62% of their responses that fell into this strategic category were of this type. For example, while listening to one of the selections one student said:

Mand then she gave us the main ideas of how to

avoid heart attacks

That would be three main points, or three main ideas

The first one was that heart attacks are very common

She said that at the beginning

And then she said that a person's personality or

his character will determinate (sic) if he's

going to get that disease.

And now she's talking about some kind of treatment

for that (heart disease)

That's the three things I heard . . ."

The members of the group of less proficient listeners more often focused their attention on unfamiliar words and asked questions that related to lexical definitions or how these words should be pronounced. About 65% of their responses that fell into this



strategic category were concerned with definitions and procunciation.

In summary, when Analyzing the Conventions of language the better

listeners tended to focus their attention on the identification of main

ideas and other aspects of rhetorical organization, while the less

proficient listeners centered their attention at the level of individual words.

The third Probing strategy is reserved for responses in which the listeners are passing judgements or making critical assessments concerning the information they have interpreted from a selection. I refer to responses such as these as Evaluating the Topics. One of the listeners activated this strategy while being presented with the selection on treatments for heart disease. First she heard:

(Let me describe the problem of heart disease in the United States. Thousands of people die of heart attacks every year; heart disease is becomming so widespread that we can talk of an epidemic.)

Then she said:

"I know that not many people get heart disease because in my (home) country it is not even like here where everybody has to do some kind of sport or physical activity

And I don't see many people who suffer from heart disease So I don't think it's as common as she says

Really it isn't . . .

So I don't think it helps to get people all upset and make them worry about that

Worrying doesn't help anybody"

The more proficient listeners evaluated the topics in their responses more than twice as frequently as the members of the other group.

For all three of the Probing strategies the listeners are doing more than passively accepting what they hear. They are reaching out and



acting upon their own inclinations towards analysis.

Under the fourth strategic heading, we find evidence that the students sometimes focused their attention inward and reflected upon their own experiences as listeners to the selections. I refer to these as <a href="Introspecting">Introspecting</a> strategies and the labels for the two identified in the investigation are Self-Evaluating and Self-Describing. Self-Evaluating responses are usually brief as the listeners say things such as:

"I wasn't listening very well at the beginning"

"I didn't understand that at all"

"This is really too hard for me to understand because I don't know anything about that topic"

"I think I missed that part"

Or

### "I understood that completely, but I think I already knew most of it before she explained it"

These kinds of responses indicate that students try to keep track of how well they are doing while engaged in listening; they tend to evaluate themselves. Self-Evaluating responses were evenly distributed in the protocols of both groups of participants. The more proficient listeners did not seem to use this strategy more frequently than the other listeners.

There did seem to be a difference between the two groups of participants with respect to the other Introspecting strategy. In these responses the students begin to explain something about how they listen or what they are trying to do as they listen. I refer to these as



Self-Describing responses because they reveal some of the students' own perceptions of what they are taking into consideration as they listen. The group of more proficient listeners produced more than twice as many Self-Describing responses in their protocols as did the other group of participants. Here are some examples of Self-Describing responses that were excerpted from one listener's protocol:

"Just now I was waiting for her (the voice presenting the selection)
to finish because I was sure I was right, I thought I was right
and she was wrong . . .

- I was kind of hoping for her to finish fast just to let you know that she was wrong in what she was saying
- I thought that I was right in my assumption and she, she was wrong . . .
- But then I remembered what she said, then I remembered the whole conversation, everything
- I remembered it all at once
- I said to myself, well I missed this the first time but now I remember what I missed before . . .
- The same thing happened to me last week
- It all came back to me on the way home
- Because I usually I start thinking about what we talked about when I am at home, or on the bus on my way home
- Then I remember things I didn't remember here . .
  - . when I leave and I'm by myself, then I remember a lot more"

The underlined responses reveal something about the student's internal experience as she listened to the selection. They only became available for analysis after the listener activated her Self-Describing strategy. They demonstrate that the listener was able to describe orally what some of her internal concerns were while she was listening.

The next two strategies I group together seem to indicate that listeners sometimes delay or stall for time as they are trying to make sense of what they hear. The students' use of these strategies is understandable since research suggests that there are limits to how much



new information a listener can accommodate at any on time (Miller, 1956). I refer to this fifth general heading as <u>Delaying</u>. When the listeners use one of the two Delaying strategies they are not introducing any new information into their protocols. The absence of new information is the feature these strategies share in common. The label I use for the first Delaying strategy is Repeating. As its name suggests, the listeners frequently repeated information that they had already expressed in one of their earlier responses. They often repeated the same information more than just once or twice. The less proficient listeners activated the Repeating strategy slightly more often than the members of the other group of participants.

I refer to the second Delaying strategy as Fishing. These are responses that are incomplete or not fully realized in the listeners' protocols. When listeners begin to express some information but do not finish what they started to say, or if they drop off one thought and switch to something else I say that they are Fishing. This happened when one of the listeners was responding to a selection dealing with a biographical sketch of President John F. Kennedy. The listeners said:

"They just said that he was Uuhhh	(Fishing)					
Let me see						
I mean they just said that Kennedy was the	(Fishing)					
No, maybe I'm wrong about that, I'm not	(Fishing)					
They just said that he was the youngest president						
ever to be elected						
But I thought that Hmmmm						
If he was the youngest, wasn't there a	(Fishing)					
I was just thinking about the other (Fishing)						
Which one was it?						
Wash't there a president after him who was						
even younger?						



Wasn't Carter younger than Kennedy?

No, I guess he wasn't because . . . Hmmmm

I was thinking that Carter, Jimmy Carter was younger than Kennedy but maybe he wasn't

I suppose that Kennedy was the youngest one after all

I know that's what they said

He, I mean Kennedy, was the youngest person to

be elected president"

(Repeating)

(Fishing)

We can only guess as to what was going on in the listeners' minds when they failed to finish what they started to say. As might have been happening in the responses excerpted above, when the listeners used one of the Delaying strategies they seemed to be providing themselves with some extra time as they struggled to focus their thoughts.

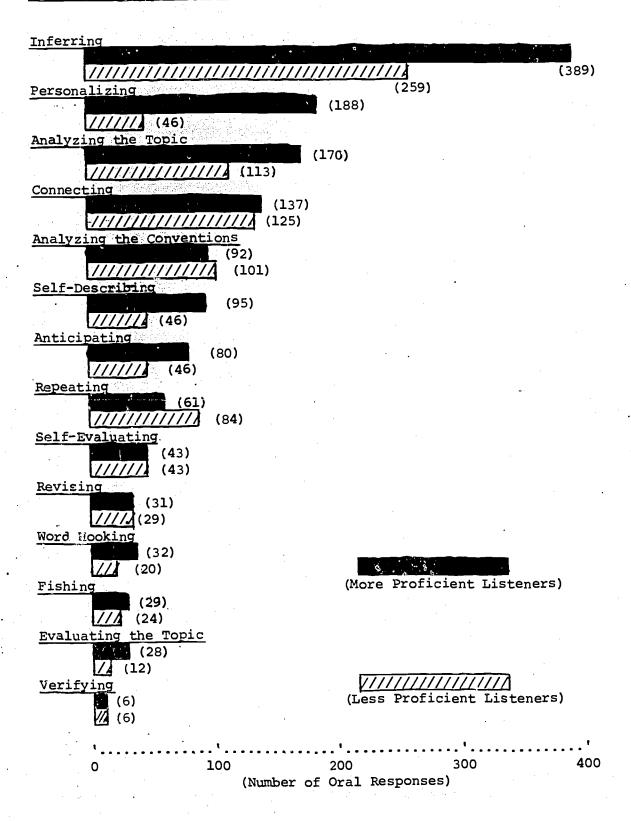
(Insert Graph
No. three)

Under the sixth and final heading for listening strategies I group the students' efforts to create a permanent written record of what they interpreted from the selections. I identify these as Recording strategies and I discovered two of them in the listeners' responses. Both are similar because the listeners used pens or pencils to write information down on paper. I found that they did this in two different ways. Either they wrote down words, phrases, and sentences, or they drew sketches, symbols and non-linquistic figures. I refer to the former Recording strategy as Notetaking and to the latter as Drawing. The use of the Notetaking strategy was overwhelmingly more common in the listeners' written work. The most surprising finding with respect to these Recording strategies is that virtually all of the listeners' notes and sketches were based upon textual information. Although the students speculated, probed, and introspected in



#### GRAPH NUMBER THREE

Total Number of Non-Paraphrasing Strategies Arranged According to Their Frequency of Occurence in the Listeners' Oral Responses





their oral responses, I found no examples of written notes or sketches that seemed to be grounded in listener-based information. In terms of the other strategies I have introduced, the participants were invariably Paraphrasing for their written responses. I found that the least combersome and most effective way to account for the differences between the listeners' use of one of these Recording strategies was to categorize each of their protocols according to the following criterion. While listening the participant engaged in:

- (1) an extensive amount of notetaking (or drawing)
- (2) a moderate amount of notetaking (or drawing)
- (3) a minimal amount of notetaking (or drawing)

  When I completed this analysis I discovered that very few of the students used the Drawing strategy in their written work. They relied upon written words, phrases, and sentences and generally did not produce sketches or other non-linguistic figures. Therefore, in the next table I present the two Recording strategies are collapsed together.

Table 2

## Table for the Students' Use of the Recording Strategies (Notetaking and Drawing Combined)

	Extensive	Moderate	Minimal (or none)
Highs	15 times	ll times	10 times
Lows	3 times	4 times	29 Times

(The # of times refers to their use of the Recording strategies during the presentation of the different listening selections.)



This table indicates that the more proficient listeners more frequently made use of the Notetaking and Drawing strategies than the group of less proficient listeners. The differences between the two groups with respect to their use of these strategies is striking.

In answer to the seventh question I initially asked, four broad sequential patterns emerged from the data when I examined the order listeners followed in the activation of their strategies. To identify these patterns I looked at how the listeners' strategies fit into the overall context of the protocols in which they appeared. I examined the sequential patterns the listeners followed in the activation of their strategies at the level of individual listening protocols. One of the last stages of my analysis of the data was to catagorize each of the students' seventy-two listening protocols according to one of these broad sequential patterns. Following the order of their frequency of occurence my labels for these sequential patterns are: Wide Distribution, Text Heavy, Listener Heavy, and Holding Off until the End. There were clear differences between the two groups as far as which of these patterns they followed in the activation of their strategies.

and flexible in their responses to the selections. They recalled, speculated, probed, introspected, delayed, and recorded all with comparable vigor. When students used this pattern they were interweaving a wide assortment of strategies, starting with their initial responses to a selection and continuing over the course of an entire protocol. Their patterns for listening were similar only in the sense that many different strategies were used in widely varying and unfixed



sequential orders. Great variety was the feature they shared in common. This is the pattern the group of more proficient listeners followed most of the time. It was reflected in more than 72% of their protocols. In comparison, the group of less proficient listeners followed this pattern for only 30% of their protocols. An excerpt from a protocol in which the listener followed the Wide Distribution pattern is presented below. It addresses the selection on John Kennedy. The listener heard:

(. . . Many of these decisions reflected Kennedy's idealism and, sometimes, his lack of realism. In his handling of American foreign policy, for instance, Kennedy envisioned a strong, interdependent Atlantic world —— that was his ideal —— but the reality was something else . . .)

# Then she said:

"They just said that Kennedy was not a very practical person, he was idealism (sic) (Paraphrasing) So this is not what we hear about Kennedy (Connecting) from the movies and all that (Analyzing Topics) They really talk differently about him here Because in the movies they like idolize (Connecting) For instance, my daughter saw a movie, (Personalizing) I didn't see it but she did And she told me that she thought from what she saw that he was a great president, not just a good one (Personalizing) but a great one (Connecting) He didn't have any faults at all That he appeared to be perfect, she (Personalizing) told me that and now when I hear this is more, it's really not against him, but it's (Evaluating Topics) more . (Analyzing Lexis) How do you say this word, unbiased? (Evaluating Topics) Anyway this is more unbiased"

# The student continued to listen:

(. . . In Latin America, he won admiration with his plans for the Alliance for Progress, but again, as any Latin American will tell you, the Alliance was much more a dream than a reality)



### She responded by saying:

"This is really, as they say, he knows what he wanted to do and nothing (Inferring) would prevent him (Paraphrasing) But as they say, he was a dreamer He wanted all these nice things to (Inferring) happen but they didn't appear I remember, not too much, but I remember that I liked him very much (Personalizing) Because of the way he talked and reported to the public whatever he wanted to do (Connecting) (Personalizing) He really tried to do it and then when things didn't happen, he said that it's not his fault (Connecting) Because this is not, you know, this is (Paraphrasing) not reality (Inferring) He can't do whatever he wants to do (Paraphrasing) wanted to do things, but he couldn't we usually blame other people when (Personalizing) we can't get things done Because he really wanted to do things but he couldn't all the time . . (Repeating)

The excerpt cited above fits the definition of the Wide Distribution sequential pattern. The student responded to the selection by activating a wide variety of listening strategies. She interweaved both textually—based and listener—based information. I would characterize this section of her protocol as an instance of effective listening because the various strategies she used seem to interconnect, feeding into each other as her interpretation of the selection continued to unfold.

The second most common sequential pattern is the one the group of less proficient listeners followed most of the time. In this pattern the listeners depended primarily upon the Paraphrasing strategy and included practically none of the other strategies in their responses to the selections. I refer to these protocols as Text Heavy because in them



the listeners seemed to stress the role of textual information and consistently paraphrased what they heard for the overwhelming majority of their responses. They presented a very limited number of listener—based examples of information. Curiously, the group of more proficient listeners followed the Text Heavy pattern in only 8% of their protocols, but the other group did so in 50% of the ones they produced.

The third and fourth sequential patterns were not as common as the first two. The label <u>Listener Heavy</u> refers to protocols that tended to overflow with listener—based information. In their responses the students would be less sensitive to the information explicitely presented in the selections and most frequently introduced information that was outside the scope of the topics being presented. When this happened the listeners were usually activating one of the Speculating listening strategies such as Connecting and Personalizing. They seemed to be veering away from the intended meaning of the selections and were addressing their own concerns. The less proficient listeners followed this pattern in approximately 14% of their protocols which was about twice as often as the members of the other group. An example of a Listener Heavy response to one of the selections is presented below.

# The listener heard:

(. . . the ancient Egyptians believed that the dead person could take his or her earthly possessions along to the next world . . . Anyway the dead person was provided with food clothing, furniture, weapons, and even servants. . .)

His responses were listener heavy when he said:



'I don't know if the Egyptians believed they (Analyzing Topics) can use these possessions But (said with incredulous intonation) I don't think it's very different from (Personalizing) the way modern people act! We know we can't use the possessions after (Connecting) death But we live our lives as if we could (Personalizing) use them after we die Some people (in today's world) live their (Connecting) life collecting possessions (Personalizing) It's like a wasy to waste life I know a lot of people who act like that and all they do is hurt (Personalizing) themselves They waste their lives because they are always thinking about what will happen to them later on instead of thinking in the present" (Personalizing)

The last sequential pattern I identified shares some characteristics with both the Text Heavy and Listener Heavy patterns. In this one the listeners begin to respond with a heavy emphasis on textual information, primarily by paraphrasing what they hear. They continue to paraphrase for most of their responses to the selection, but the final sections of their protocols culminate with an overwhelming emphasis upon listener-based information. In the Wide Distribution pattern the students consistently interweaved textually-based information with their own ideas from the very beginning of their protocols. final pattern is different because the listeners only begin to integrate some of their own information into their protocols at the very end of their interpretations of the selections. I refer to this pattern as Holding Off until the End. It was used by the better listeners for 14% of their protocols, and by the less proficient listeners only 6% of the time. As was the case with the



Listener Heavy pattern, when the students eventually introduced listener—based information they were usually activating the Connecting and

Personalizing strategies. The final step in the analysis of the data

was to categorize all of the listeners individual protocols according to

the criterion of these four sequential patterns. After categorizing the

72 protocols included in the investigation separately and without having

access to each others decisions, the three test—coders agreed upon the

assignments they made over 85% of the time.

Table 3

Sequential Patterns Used by Both Groups

•	<u>Text</u> <u>Heavy</u>	<u>Listener</u> <u>Heavy</u>	Wide Distribution	Holding Off Until the End
Highs:	3	2	26	5
Lows:	18	5	'n	2
Both Groups Combined:	21	7	37	7
Total	number of	protocols = 7	2 (36 highs	+ 36 lows)

This table indicates that the group of more proficient listeners were more likely to follow the Wide Distribution pattern in the activation of their strategies. The group of less proficient listeners most frequently relied upon a Text Heavy interpretation of the selections. The two different groups of listeners are clearly distinguished by their uses of these contrastive sequential patterns for responding to what they heard.



#### Discussion

Only a few of the listening strategies identified in this report had been included in prior characterizations of the listening process (e.g., Paraphrasing which is frequently referred to as 'sampling', and Anticipating the Topics which is often referred to as 'predicting').

In the literature, there were no previous studies that addressed the issues of frequency of occurrence or sequential patterns in the activation of listening strategies. In fact, most earlier characterizations of listening did not grow out of a tradition of attempting to delve directly into the listening process. One important contribution of the investigation is in the methodology it presents for collecting students' listening protocols.

The discovery of the numerous strategies that emerged from the listeners' responses supports an incipient recognition in the literature that the distinctive features of listening as a language process parallel those of the processes of reading and writing. Just as better readers and writers experiment with a wider variety of strategic options, so do more effective listeners. This recognition should make it easier for teachers and researchers to fit listening into a broader picture of language in which reading, writing, speaking, and listening all interrelate.

I did not find that the two groups of participants used recognizably different listening strategies. Graph number three signals that the students in both groups activated the same seventeen strategies while listening. However, my analyses of sequence and frequency of occurrence lead me to two conclusions that suggest some differences between the two groups. First, the more proficient listeners responded to the selections with a



greater number of oral and written comments. As a reflection of this, they seemed to activate a wider variety of strategies in their individual protocols. In other words, the more proficient listeners did more while interacting with the selections presented to them. Second, although the proficient listeners produced more responses and distributed their strategies more widely in the protocols, their efforts did not seem to be haphazard because the strategies they used seemed to interconnect. Listeners who speculated, for example, would frequently ground their speculations in the text by paraphrasing some of what they heard before moving on to another comment. Listeners who heavily depended upon textually-based information during the early sections of their protocols often expressed a higher proportion of listener-based information later on in their responses. point is that all of the strategies are important because when they seem most effective they interconnect. Some strategies were used more frequently in the protocols but any one of them might play a pivotal role in a student's interpretation of a listening selection.

Four broad sequential patterns emerged from the data when I examined the order listeners followed in the activation of their strategies. In one of these patterns, the one referred to as Wide Distribution, the listeners' protocols were similar only in the sense that many different strategies were used in widely varying and unfixed sequences. This in fact was the pattern the more proficient listeners followed most of the time. The recognition of variety in relation to different sequential patterns signals that listening is a complex language process. It is not easily pinned down by a single comprehensive characterization. Listening is not one thing because students appear to follow nearly as many different



patterns for listening as they have occasions to listen. The students' protocols seem to reveal that listeners generate internal texts which commonly differ in many respects from the original selections. When the different strategies used seemed most effective, they coupled together like the links in a fence, or the molecular units that bond together to form the double helix of a molecule of DNA. The listening process is elusive because listeners do not seem to coordinate their strategies according to any rules save one: The textual and non-textual pieces of information that emerge along with the strategies listeners use, determine their interpretations of what they hear. The image of listening that arises from this discussion is that of a living language process with all of the potential for multiformity that such a description necessarily implies.

What are the more effective listening strategies for ESL students to use? What are the more effective sequential patterns for ESL students to following while activating their listening strategies? It is essential to realize that these are not the questions I have tried to address in this investigation. My aim has been to describe ESL students' responses to listening selections in order to explore the strategies they use. The central conclusion of the study is not that there is one best strategy or one best strategic pattern for responding, but that different alternatives are available. I can point out that the more proficient listeners tended to activate a relatively wider variety of individual strategies and sequential patterns.

The more proficient listeners placed greater emphasis upon the personalizing strategy than the members of the other group. They personalized in their responses more than four times as frequently. As Graph number three indicates, the more proficient listeners also inferred,



drew connections, self-described, and anticipated more often than the less proficient listeners. While analyzing the conventions of language they were more likely to focus their attention on broad issues such as the rhetorical organization of the selections, rather than on lower level concerns. These results indicate that ESL students at different levels of language proficiency may be listening in different ways; they may be trying to interpret what they hear by relying upon different kinds of strategies. Through peer collaboration and teacher intervention, students can learn to experiment with a fuller range of the options that are open to them as they interpret listening selections within the context of ESL classrooms.

upon the process of listening. Students need to do more than merely listen to lectures in order to answer multiple choice questions. There must be some exploration and intervention into the listening process.

This is why I devised a method for data collection that permitted students to self-select the times when they were ready to take periodic breaks from listening in order to respond through speaking and writing. Once we have coupled the students' use of these other mediums with their internal responses to listening selections, then we have the means for delving into the listening process. This also presents the opportunity to interweave listening instruction with methods for second language teaching that involve speaking, reading, and writing. The point is that ESL students need to be guided toward the use of a variety of listening strategies while experimenting with a full range of the strategic options that are open to them as listeners.



One potential danger I want to address is that someone who reads this report might think that the strategies I discovered could be handled separately in the classroom. I have not intended to leave the impression that these are separable strategies for listening. The data reveal that listening is a process in which a listener's strategies are closely tied to each other. Since they all seem to interrelate, it may not make sense to try and break the process down into a series of isolated strategies. Each one feeds into the others because this is an interconnecting language process, not a series of subskills for listening. A critical implication of the study is that the listening strategies presented in this report ought not to be handled discretely in the classroom but that they should be seen as interweaving components to a single animated language process.

Part of learning to listen should be discovering more about how we respond to listening selections. It would be an invaluable lesson to learn that we are frequently wrong in our interpretations without knowing it. With practice, students can learn to speak and write more effectively about what they are thinking while listening. They can begin to compare their responses with those produced by their peers. My position is that ESL students need to participate in activities that will help them examime what the listening process entails and they need to explore this process first-hand. Once their exploration of the process has been initiated they need to be guided in the use of alternative strategies for listening. This will become another aspect of the overall language learning experiences and can be tied to their development as readers, speakers, and writers.



By employing the framework for listening defined in this report,
language teachers can more easily identify the strategies students are
using in their classes.

When initially setting up this investigation there were no procedures for collecting data on listening that effectively addressed the purpose for the study. Therefore, I devised a structure for the participants to have control over when they could briefly interrupt the presentation of the selections in order to respond to what they had heard so far before continuing to listen. This 'stop-and-go' procedure for the students to interact with the listening selections proved to be an effective means for collecting students' responses. The examination of their responses revealed some strategies for listening that normally take place beneath the surface of observable behavior. It permitted an exploration of the listening process in action.

Following is a brief synopsis of the major implications of this study.

(Insert Table 4)

# Table 4

Implications for a New Direction in ESL Listening Instruction
(These are based upon both my review of the literature
and the results of the investigation)

- 1.) It will focus on the listening process; instructors will intervene in the students' listening during the process.
- 2.) It will view listening as an interweaving of listening strategies rather than as a linear process of decoding.
- 3.) It will not refer to listening as a passive or receptive language skill; listeners are the creators of language too. It will refer to listening as an <u>interpretive language process</u>.
- 4.) It will be centered around strategies for listening.
  Instructors will help students recognize their strategies,
  strengthen them, and generate some new ones.
- 5.) It will stress the integration of all four of the language processes: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It will propose that better listeners are more likely to become better speakers, readers, and writers.
- 6.) Instructors will examine the products of listening by how well they match the speaker's intended meaning but also for what they reveal concerning the listener's strategies.
- 7.) It will be holistic by viewing listening as an activity that involves textually—based as well as listener—based information. Listeners speculate and use their intuition and they interpret what they hear.
- 8.) It will be based upon psycholinguistic research and research into the listening process.
- 9.) It will be informed by other diciplines, especially research into cognitive psychology, linguistics, reading, schema theory, composition, communication theory, and L2 acquisition.
- 10.) It will view listening as a creative activity that can be analyzed and described. Listening teachers will believe that listening can be taught.
- 11.) It will propose that language teachers need to become aware of some of the steps they can follow in order to be the presenters of listener-considerate samples of speech.
- 12.) It will provide an interactive structure for students to periodically respond to what they hear while listening selections are continuing to be presented.



#### APPENDIX A

3 Measures for Classifying the Participants According to
General Comprehension Proficiency

The first is the Michigan Test of Aural Comprehension which was designed to accompany the Mighigan Test of English Proficiency. This is a 90 item test of listening comprehension that is structurally based. The second is a Listening Proficiency Rating Scale which was reviewed in a recent article in the TESOL Quarterly as "a good example of how detailed information on learner ability can be obtained from the use of a listening proficiency rating scale . . . (Richards, 1983, p. 230)."

It was designed by Brindley (1982) for the Adult Migrant Education Service in Sydney, Australia and is based upon seven different proficiency levels. Finally, the third measure used was the students' reading proficiency levels as determined by the City University of New York Reading Assessment Test (CRAT). By bringing into consideration three different measures, two specifically designed for listening and one for reading, I was able to attain a relatively complete picture of the listening proficiency levels for all of the participants.

#### REFERENCES

- Anderson, Richard. (1977). Schema-directed processess in language comprehension. Technical Report No. 50 from Illinois University, Urbana. Center for the Study of Reading. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED 142 977).
- Bamford, Julian. (1982). Past and present views in teaching listening comprehension. The Japan Association of Language Teachers

  Newsletter, 6 (4).
- Belasco. Simon. (1967). Surface structure and deep structure in English. Midway, 8 (2), 110-115.
- Blair, Robert. (Ed.). (1982). <u>Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching</u>. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury Publishers, Inc.
- Brindley, Geoffrey P. (1983). Listening proficiency descriptions.
  Unpublished listening proficiency rating scale prepared for the
  Adult Migrant Educational Service. Sydney, Australia.
- Brown, Ann. (1981). Metacognition and reading and writing: The development and facilitation of selective attention strategies for learning from texts. Unpublished manuscript prepared at the Center for the Study of Reading. University of Illinois.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (1975). The next 25 years: Shaping the revolution. In Marina K. Burt and Heidi C. Dulay (Eds.), On TESOL '75. Washington, D. C.: TESOL
- Brown, H. Douglas. (1980). <u>Principles of Language Learning and Teaching</u>. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall.
- Burling, Robbins. (1982). Sounding Right. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.
- Calkins, Lucy M. (1983). Lessons from a child. Ph. D. dissertation, New York University.
- Carrell, Patricia L. (1984). The effects of rhetorical organization on ESL readers. TESOL Quarterly, 18 (3), 441-469.
- Devine, Thomas G. (1978). Listening: What we know after 50 years of research and theorizing? <u>Journal of Reading</u>, <u>21</u>. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ 169 540).
- Devine, Thomas G. (1982). <u>Listening Skills Schoolwide (Activities and Programs)</u>. Urbana, Illinois: NCTE.
- Donaldson-Evans, Mary. (1981). Auditory comprehension in the French conversation class. Modern Language Journal, 65, 166-173.



- Dunkel, Patricia, & Pialorsi, Frank. (1982). Advanced Listening

  Comprehension (Developing Aural and Note-Taking Skills). Rowley,

  Mass.: Newbury House.
- Fanselow, John F. (1977). Beyond Rashomon--Conceptualizing and describing the teaching act. TESOL Quarterly, 11 (1), 17-39.
- Frederiksen, C. H. (1975). Effects of context-induced processing operations on semantic information acquired from discourse. Cognitive Psychology, 7, 139-166
- Gary, Judith O., & Gary, Norman. (1981). Caution: Talking may be dangerous for your linguistic health: The case for a much greater emphasis on listening comprehension in foreign language instruction.

  International Review of Applied Linguistics, 19 (1).
- Goodman, K. S., & Goodman, Y. M. (1977). Learning about psycholinguistic processes by analyzing oral reading. Harvard Educational Review, 47, 317-333.
- Graves, Donald H. (1981). Writing research for the eighties: What is needed. Language Arts, 58, 197-206.
- Hairston, Maxine. (1982). Winds of change: Thomas Kuhn and the revolution in the teaching of writing. College Composition and Communication, 33 (1), 76-88.
- Humes, Ann. (1980). "The composing process: A review of the literature.

  Southwest Regional Laboratory Technical Note. Los Alamitos, Ca.:

  SWRL Educational Research and Development. (ERIC Document
  Reproduction Service No. ED 192 378).
- Kintsch, Walter, & Van Dijk, T. A. (1978). Toward a model of text comprehension and production. Psychological Review, 85, 363-394.
- Kisslinger, Ellen, & Rost, Michael. (1980). <u>Listening Focus</u>. Tucson, Arizona: Lingual House.
- Kuhn, Thomas S. (1970). The Structure of Scientific Revolutions. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Ladas, Harold. (1980). Summarizing research: A case study. Review of Educational Research, 50 (4), 594-624.
- Lundsteen, Sara W. (1979). Listening: Its Impact on Reading and the Other Language Arts. Urbana, Illinois: NCTE. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 169 537).
- Marr, M. B., & Gormley, K. (1982). Children's recall of familiar and unfamiliar test." Reading Research Quarterly, 18, 89-104.



- Meyer, B. J. (1975). The Organization of Prose and Its Effects on Memory.

  New York: American Elsevier Publishing Company, Inc.
- Miller, George A. (1956). The magical number seven, plus or minus two:

  Some limits on our capacity for processing information. Psychological

  Review, 63, 81-97.
- Murphy, John Merton. (1985). An investigation into the listening strategies of ESL college students. Ed.D. dissertation, Teachers College: Columbia University.
- Newmark, Leonard. (1981). Participatory observation: How to succeed in language learning. In H. Winitz (Ed.), <u>The Comprehension Approach</u> to Foreign Language Instruction. Rowley, Mass.; Newbury House Publishers.
- Nord, James. (1981). Three steps leading to listening fluency. In H. Winitz (Ed.), The Comprehension Approach to Foreign Language Instruction. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers.
- Oprandy, Robert. (work in progress). Examination, characterization and creation of listening activities for ESL students. Work in progress to fulfill requirement for a Doctorate in Education. Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Palmer, H. (1917). The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages.
  Yonkers, New York: World Publishers.
  - Quirk, Randolph, & Greenbaum, Sidney. (1975). A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
  - Raimes, Ann. (1983). Tradition and revolution in ESL teaching. TESOL Quarterly, 17 (4), 535-552.
  - Richards, Jack C. (1983). Listening comprehension: Approach, design, procedure. TESOL Quarterly, 17 (2), 219-240.
  - Rigg, P. (1976). Reading in ESL. In J. Fanselow & R. Crymes (Eds.), On TESOL '76. Washington, D. C.: TESOL
  - Rivers, Wilga M. (1976). Speaking in Many Tongues (Expanded 2nd Edition). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers.
- Rivers, Wilga M. (1978). A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English
  as a Second or Foreign Language. New York: Oxford University Press.
  - Rumelhart, D. W. (1977). Toward an interactive model of reading.

    In S. Dormic (Ed.), Attention and Performance VI. Hillsdale,

    New Jersey: Erlbaum



out it first, on tried it a till not the constant, allower is a



- Schwerdtferger, Inge C. (1980). Perception-oriented foreign language learning and teaching: Theory into practice--notional syllabuses. System, 8 (1), 23-34.
- Sims, Jean, & Peterson, Patricia. (1980). Better Listening Skills. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Focus Ta Modern Language Journal, 62, 27-37.
- Language Acquisition in the Classroom. San Francisco, Ca.:
  The Alemany Press.
- Underwood, Mary. (1980). Authentic material for listening comprehension.

  JALT Newsletter, 4 (7), 4-6.
- Winitz, Harris. (1981). The Comprehension Approach to Foreign Language
  Instruction. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers.
- Wolf, R. L., & Tymitz, B. L. (1976-77). Guest editorial—Ethnography and reading: Matching inquiry mode to process. Reading Research Quarterly, 12 (2).
- Zamel, Vivian. (1982). Writing: The process of discovering meaning. TESOL Quarterly, 16 (2), 195-210.



DEPT OF LOUGATION

DATE FILMED